DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 282 284 EA 019 323

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TITLE Theories of Modern Management.
INSTITUTION Association of School Business Officials International, Reston, VA.
PUB DATE 86
NOTE 31p.; Chapter 3 of "Principles of School Business Management" (EA 019 320).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Guides - Classroom Use - Materials (For Learner) (051)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrative Organization; Elementary Secondary Education; Leadership Styles; Organizational Change; Organizational Climate; *Organizational Theories; School Administration; School Business Officials
IDENTIFIERS Loose Coupling Theory

ABSTRACT

This chapter of "Principles of School Business Management" identifies management theories that provide a fundamental conceptual knowledge base that school business officials can use to understand the school organizational setting and its influences on the day-to-day operation of the educational process. Particular attention is paid to aspects of organizational theory and behavior that relate to the structure, climate, leadership, and development of organizations. The chapter opens by introducing each of these areas of focus, then presents an overview of the history of management theory from the traditional period prior to 1900 through the eras of scientific management, human relations, behavioral science, and systems, up to the contemporary period that began in 1975. The chapter next discusses organizational structure in depth, discussing major organizational components and the concepts of coupling. Methods for characterizing organizational climate are reviewed next, including open and closed climates, authoritative and participative organization, and the need-press model. The assessment of leadership style and its relationship to effectiveness are the chapter's next topics. The chapter concludes with an examination of the characteristics, prerequisites, and strategies for organizational development. One hundred and three footnotes are provided. (PGD)

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Theories of Modern Management

W. Hal Knight

The perceived role of the school business administrator has expanded considerably in the last half century. No longer does this individual or group of individuals provide simply a clerical, technical function within the framework of school operations. "It is now recognized that decisions relating to curriculum, school organization and personnel are interdependent upon decisions relating to finance, buildings, equipment and supplies."[1] With this change in focus should come a concomitant modification of the concept of appropriate training for persons desiring to assume this important position, but preparation programs continue to be highly task-specific. The purpose of this chapter is to tie the technical aspects of the position to the school business manager's need to better understand the overall character of the organization within which he or she works.

To accomplish this, appropriate theories of management are identified which can provide a fundamental conceptual knowledge base with regard to organizations and their management. This base is needed if the school business administrator is to understand the school organizational setting and its influences on the day-to-day operation of the educational process. Of particular concern are those aspects of organizational theory and behavior which deal with organizational structure, climate, leadership style and organizational development.

Organizational Governance and Structure. The school business administrator must know the ramifications of working in an organization with a bureaucratic structure, utilizing his or her knowledge of the advantages of this operational system (expertise, rationality, compliance, coordination, continuity and incentive) to offset the known disadvantages (boredom, lack of morale, communication blocks, rigidity and conflict between achievement and seniority). Since the school business administrator is often directly responsible for personnel functions of classified and non-instructional personnel, a knowledge and understanding of these organizational characteristics is imperative.

In addition to the common traditional assumptions made about organizations, though, the school business administrator needs to be aware of other possible ways of viewing the school organization. To this extent, the concept of "loosely coupled systems" is most appropriate.[2] Loose coupling suggests that organizational units are responsive, one to the other, but that each preserves its identity and some evidence of its separateness. Understanding concepts such as these can strengthen the school business administrator's ability to discern why at times he or she functions independently of the superintendent; at other times, or on other issues, he or she does not. The effective school business administrator is able to unravel the

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mysteries of his or her school operations in a manner that allows the best possible job.

Organizational Climate. The internal characteristics which distinguish one school organization from another and color the behavior of people in it constitute its organizational climate. This climate is, roughly speaking, the personality of the school system. Since climate contributes significantly to how the school system defines its goals and operating philosophies, it is a necessary part of the training of school business administrators. As part of the management team, the school business administrator must be able to assess the climate not only of his or her particular part of the system, but also understand the ramification of climate for the contacts which he or she has outside of his normal operating sphere. Three major conceptualizations of climate relating to the school business administrator will be discussed. Climate can be defined 1) by the degree to which interaction occurs between employees (open to closed), 2) by the managerial system employed (exploitative-authoritarian to participative) or 3) by the extent of development and control present.

Organizational Development. Many of the tasks facing school business administrators are at least tangentially related to organizational development and the implementation of planned change. Each time a purchasing system is implemented, or reporting procedures change, or another stage in the computerization of records occurs, a planned change has been initiated. Organizational development provides a systematic, philosophical approach to the matter of dealing with organizational problems. By employing this proactive, data-gathering, problem-solving approach, the school business administrator can be more knowledgeable of effective ways of effecting change in his or her organizational setting. Further, he or she has the opportunity to provide information for other school leaders.

Leadership. As an intergral part of the school district's administrative team, the school business administrator must take a leadership role in the affairs of the organization. He or she must also know appropriate models or theories of leadership to be able to develop a program of leadership development for the non-instructional staff. Central is a basic knowledge of the major ways in which leadership can be addressed: trait theory, leader behaviors and situational or contingency approaches. Since he or she is often involved with the selection of personnel and of professional development programs, the contemporary school business administrator should be aware of the leadership training models that have been successfully marketed, such as Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid[3] and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership.[4] By becoming familiar with theories of leadership, the school business administrator can better define his or her philosophy in a manner which will be both meaningful and will lead to a more consistent application of authority.

Given the complexity of our school organizations and the problems that beset them, it is apparent that school business administrators must come to view their roles as greater than the functions, duties and responsibilities assigned to them. They must become leaders in a larger sense, not relegated to dealing simply with transportation, food service or accounting functions. They must understand every part of the educational enterprise. To do this, school business administrators must be aware of less technical aspects of their position and gain a better sense of the organization. Part of this increased awareness can come only through an increased

emphasis on the global organizational problems addressed by theories of management.

Management Theory Development

The study of management theory is not the study of isolated activity. Rather, the theories which have meaning for today's administrator have evolved over a number of years. Our present-day concepts about how organizations, especially schools, operate is the end result of countless investigations and theory testing. Concomitantly, the theories which are presented here, while reflecting the "state of the art," should not be interpreted as the final view of the subjects they address. Past theories have been modified or even abandoned in the face of new information; so also may these be abandoned. Management science, like its companion disciplines, is constantly seeking to improve. To better establish where the profession is, it is appropriate to discuss where it has been.[3]

Management theory has had five fairly well-defined stages: historical, scientific management, human relations, behavioral science and systems theory. The time periods and major theorists associated with each period are presented in Table 3:1.

Table 3:1: Stages in the Development of Management Thought

Period	Major Theorists	Timeframe
Historical	none	pre-1900
Scientific Management	Frederick Taylor	1900-1930
	Henri Fayol	
	Max Weber	
Human Relations	Elton Mayo	1930-1950
	Fritz Rothlisberger	
	W. J. Dickson	
Behavioral Science	Herbert Simon	1950-1970
	Douglas McGregor	
	Rensis Likert	
Systems	Ludwig von Bertalanffy	1960-present
	Kenneth E. Boulding	
	Jacob Getzels	
	Egon Guba	
Contemporary	James March	1975-present
	Karl Weick	
	Johan Olsen	

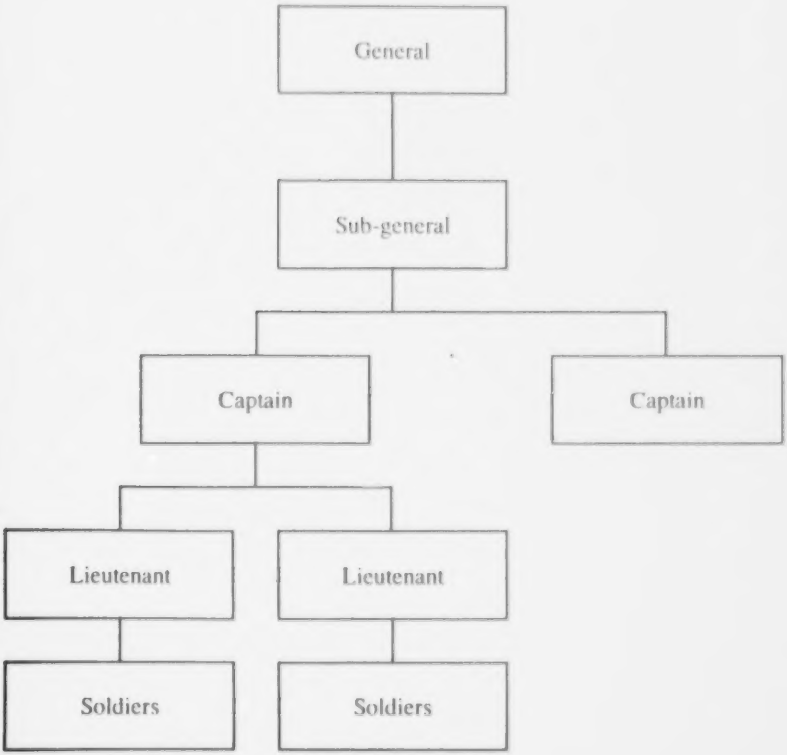
Historical. Although the development of formal management theory is usually traced only as far back as the start of the twentieth century, the antecedents extend to the earliest of times when man first began to associate in tribal units. These organizations were much simpler than the ones with which we are familiar. They were managed by a figure of authority (a leader) who often held a religious or quasi-religious position. These systems worked efficiently until they became

too large for one person to direct, or until the tasks to be performed by the organization become more complex.

Characteristic of these problems was that of Moses.* According to accounts of the time, he found that he was not able to adequately govern the Israelites during the Exodus because of the large numbers of people (the twelve tribes) and the complexity of the task (finding and securing the "promised land"). Moses altered his governmental structure so that he no longer was required to render judgment on all phases of the Israelites' life; rather, he delegated authority to rulers of tens, hundreds and thousands.

This hierarchy of command was the chief characteristic of pre-twentieth century organizations as shown in Figure 3:1. The Roman army utilized it through its system of sub captains (lieutenants), captains, sub-generals and generals. Feudal systems reflected this basic structure with several vassals pledging allegiance to one particular ruler, each of whom had numerous serfs under his command, as did the Catholic Church with its pope, archbishops, bishops, parish priests and parishioners. Even toward the end of the nineteenth century, most industrial concerns reflected the same system of management: several managers reported directly to the president of the company, who was often also the owner. Each manager, in turn, had a group of workers assigned to him.

Figure 3:1: Traditional Organizational Structure.



Whereas the initial movement away from a single ruler/leader manager (who made all the decisions for a group) was related primarily to the problems associated with managing large numbers of people, the second phase reflected an increased complexity of society and industry. As the technologies used in industrial concerns became more complex at the end of the nineteenth century, the traditional, hierarchial form of organization became less efficient. These traditional organizational patterns could not effectively deal with either the numerous interdependencies (both of goods and services) which arose from the expansion of technological knowledge on the industrial side, nor the increasing social interest role being assumed by governmental organizations. Although it was apparent that these traditional methods of organizing were ceasing to be effective, it was not until late in the nineteenth century that management theorists began to suggest tives to these structures.

Scientific Management. The last few decades in the nineteenth century saw the accumulation of vast amounts of resources in the United States and in Western Europe. The development of electrical power, along with the machinery which could effectively utilize it, provided the potential for transforming the industrial capacity of the western world. However, a major weakness was "in the crude forms of developing, organizing, controlling and administrating this mass of resource efforts."[7] The first major movement in modern management thought, scientific management came about in response to these problems.

Three theorists exemplify the predominant thrust of this movement. They are Frederick W. Taylor (1856-1915), often called the "Father of Scientific Management;" Henri Fayol (1841-1925); and Max Weber (1864-1920). Although these were not the only persons involved in exploring the intricacies of organizations during the first third of the twentieth century, each is associated with specific concepts which survive in contemporary management.[8]

Frederick Taylor devoted his life to determining methods for bolstering the productivity of individuals in industrial organizations. Of Quaker-Puritan descent, that background is reflected in his belief that each person should perform at his maximum capacity. Taylor became intrigued with improving the procedures which laborers used to perform their tasks as a method of improving overall performance. Beginning in 1881, at Midvale Steel Company in Philadelphia, he began a series of time and motion studies geared toward developing what he referred to as the "one best way" of performing each task of the manufacturing process. The concept that management, rather than workers, could best determine the most effective method for accomplishing a task was inventive.

The basic principles of scientific management were:

1) the development of a science for each element of a man's work to replace the rule-of-thumb method (i.e., task management)
2) scientific selection and training of the workmen
3) management ensurance that all workers use scientific methods
4) equal division of work between management and workers.*

Although Taylor's devotion to time and motion studies became a hallmark of the scientific management movement, some of his ideas were ignored for half a century.[10] For instance, Taylor advocated the realignment of organizational structures so that there would be "functional foremen" for each part of a worker's task. These individuals would be performance experts for that particular element of the process. Any involved process would involve a number of these functional foremen; they would take the place of the traditional foreman who oversaw the entire proc-

ess. This concept resurfaced in a related form nearly sixty years later with the idea of "matrix" management.[11] Additionally, Taylor's concept that each worker could be a "first class man" in some aspect of a company's process was not accepted at the time, but it foreshadows the current concept of job-matching.

Henri Fayol, a French steel- and coal-mining executive, is credited with first defining a set of principles by which organizations should be managed.[12] These principles were derived from his own experience as a manager. Unlike Taylor, he viewed the problems of the organization from the top, down. It was Fayol's belief that his fourteen principles provided the basic foundation for effective management:

1. Division of work
2. Authority
3. Discipline
4. Unity of Command
5. Unity of direction
6. Subordination of individual interests to the general interest
7. Remuneration
8. Centralization
9. Scalar chain (line of authority)
10. Order
11. Equity
12. Stability of tenure of personnel
13. Initiative
14. Esprit de corps.[13]

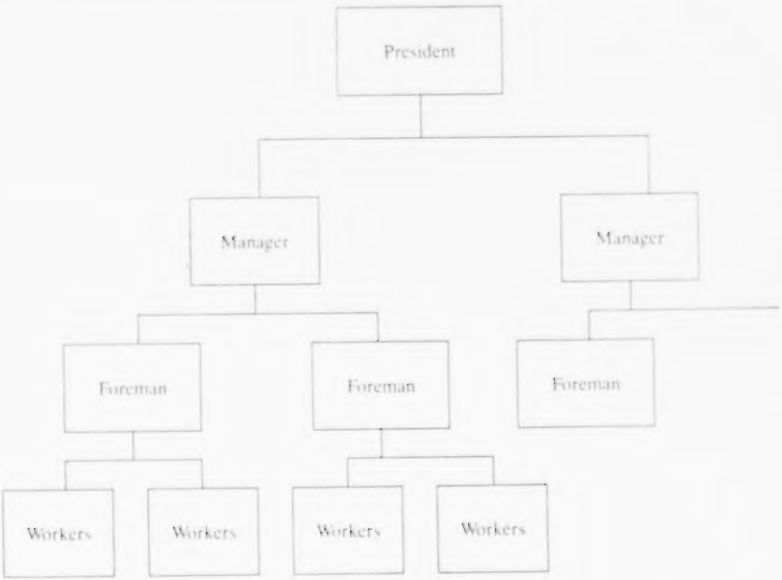
Fayol's definition of *division of work* was similar to previous concepts of specialization of labor, such that output would be increased through the reduction of waste and through streamlined job training. Both Fayol and Taylor believed that specialization applied to the technical aspects of industry and to management. *Authority* was differentiated between that which was formal (held by virtue of office or position) and that which was personal (held by virtue of "intelligence, experience, moral worth, ability to lead, past services, etc").[14] It was defined as "the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience."[15] *Discipline* was, according to Fayol, essential to the success of the organization, but it was obedience based upon respect, not fear. *Unity of command* ran counter to Taylor's concept of the functional foreman. Fayol maintained that an individual cannot be expected to work effectively if he were responsible to more than one individual.

The idea that the individual's interest must be subordinated to the interest of the organization attempted to end the inevitable conflict which arose whenever individuals or groups attempted to override an organization's goals. One of Fayol's least-well-articulated principles was that of *remuneration*. He endeavored to explain a variety of systems that might be used to determine compensation (such as day wages, piece rates, bonuses and profit sharing), but he concluded that the factors involved were too variable to establish a rule. Instead, he called for compensation which made "the personnel more valuable."[16]

The concept of *centralization* espoused by Fayol became a central tenet of management thought. He expressed the centralization-decentralization continuum as follows: "Everything which goes to increase the importance of the subordinate's role is decentralization; everything which goes to reduce it is centralization."[17] The objective in determining the appropriate level of centralization was that which provided the "optimum utilization of all faculties of the personnel."[18]

Scalar Chain described the linking of superiors within an orgnization from the top to the bottom. It outlined the appropriate communication and decision-making channels within the organization. To alleviate the potential for roadblocks in the communication process, Fayol developed the concept of a "gangplank" or bridge between employees at the same hierarchial level within the organization (Figure 3:2). These linkages were to facilitate the exchange of information between units of the organization at the same levels so that efficiency would not be lost in travelling up and down the chain of command.

Figure 3:2: Fayol's Gangplank or Bridge



Order required that everything within the organization have a specific place and/or function, and that these were constantly maintained. The issue of employee relations was addressed through the concept of *equity*. Standards for personnel planning were included under *stability of tenure*, such that the organization could respond to needs for human resources. The principle of *initiative* encouraged all employees to display eagerness in all of their work. Finally, Fayol advocated a strong sense of what we might now call corporate identity: sense of unity between workers and management resulting in a harmonious organization.

These fourteen principles were designed to be used as the basis for building better organizations. Furthermore, they have provided the underpinnings for much of management theory in the twentieth century.

Max Weber is the last of the theorists to be discussed as part of the scientific management movement.[9] Unlike both Taylor and Fayol, Weber was not a manager; rather, he was an intellectual. He had seen the growth of large-scale organizations in Germany and predicted a need for a more formalized set of procedures for administrators which he conceived as "bureaucracy," an ideal form of organization. In effect, Weber had analyzed, codified and modified descriptions of the major extant organizations of his day: the Catholic church and the Prussian army.

Bureaucracy was promoted as the most efficient form of organization, the one which could most effectively be used by complex organizations, and the most humane.[20] Bureaucracy was also an attempt to deal with the personal subjugation, nepotism, cruelty, emotional vicissitudes and subjective judgments which characterized management in the early 1900s.[21]

Weber's ideal bureaucracy was defined by six characteristics. It required a well-defined *hierarchy of authority* based on rational-legal tenets. Previous concepts of authority had centered on such traditional lines as the source of authority. This hierarchy was one of "offices," not persons. Second, there was to be a clear *division of work* wherein each employee was to be trained in a limited, specific task which would be done repetitiously to aide in accuracy. Third, there was to be a system of *rules and regulations* covering the rights and duties of position incumbents, thereby increasing efficiency since there would be no need for "new" solutions to old problems. Fourth, there was to be a set of *uniform procedures* for dealing with the work situation. Fifth, *impersonality* in interpersonal relationships would ensure that decisions made in the organization would not be influenced by the political, social and economic connections of the client. Last, selection for employment and promotion in the organization would no longer be based on tradition or birth but, rather, on *technical competence*. Employees, then, would come to their positions as a result of examinations, training and education.

The scientific management movement was not influential in the educational setting until about 1912, when a series of articles in the popular press attacked education as inefficient.

In response to these accusations the schools instituted efficiency ratings for teachers and, later, administrators.[22] Additionally, the incorporation of school surveys to determine the relative efficiency of different schools also responded to this movement.[23] Many schools at the time began to operate a "platoon" system, whereby classes were operated on a tight schedule with classes moving from subject to subject in platoons, thereby reducing the inefficiency of having teachers teach different subjects.

Human Relations. The third phase in the development of management thought is often referred to as the human-relations phase. As is often the case, there is no sharply defined ending of the scientific management era and beginning of the era of human relations. However, the antecedent of the human-relations movement is generally placed in a group of studies conducted at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric branch of American Telephone and Telegraph in Cicero, Illinois, beginning in 1924.[24] The primary forces in the development of this thrust were Elton Mayo, Fritz Rothlisberger and W. J. Dickson.[25] Mayo had been an outspoken critic of Taylorism, suggesting that "its chief defect is that workmen are not asked to collaborate" in developing its procedures.[26] He, Rothlisberger and Dickson were integrally involved in the development of the Hawthorne studies.

The first of these experiments (the Illumination Experiments, 1924-1927) attempted to determine the relationship of quality and quantity of lighting to the efficiency of workers, measured by their output.[27] After three years of study, during which the amount and intensity of light was systematically altered and monitored, it was ascertained that no correlation between the amount of light and productivity existed. The investigators were intrigued with the idea that psychological factors had intervened, and proceeded with three additional sets of studies over the next five years.

In the Relay Assembly Test Room study (1927-1932), the researchers again studied the relationship between physical conditions of work and productivity. Output increased steadily over the entire period of the study, leading the researchers to reinforce their earlier conclusion that there were no simple correlations between output and physical conditions. At this point it became evident "that this area of employee reactions and feelings was a fruitful field for industrial research."[28]

The final two studies addressed those issues. In the Interviewing program (1928-1930), the investigators set out to explore employee attitudes about their jobs, supervision and working conditions. From this study it was concluded that it was important for employees that management was concerned about them; therefore, attitudes could not be removed from the context of the workplace, as the scientific managers had maintained. The last study (Bank Wiring Observation Room, 1931-1932) not only reinforced the preceding studies with regard to the importance of relationships between supervisors and workers, but also established the power of the informal group in the workplace.

Rothlisberger concluded that "workers are not isolated, unrelated individuals; they are social animals and should be treated as such."[29] It is from this perspective that organizations were first seen to have two distinct parts: the technical organization with its tools, machinery and physical surroundings; and the human organization.[30]

Mayo, Rothlisberger and others of the human relations movement advocated several organizational features to facilitate this relationship. Primarily, they suggested that work units become self-regulating and that from this self-regulation would come increased productivity.

In school administration the response to the human relations movement was "evident in a wave of writing and exhortation on democratic administration."[31] This view led to the promotion of participatory management between teachers and administrators, democratic classrooms where the teaching was student-initiated and a variety of programs designed to facilitate individual development.

Behavioral Science. The overlap between phases in the development of management theory is even more pronounced when one examines the behavioral-science approach. This thrust is a melding of the perspectives of psychology, sociology, political science and economics to the problems of integrating the social relationships advocated by the human relations school with the structural emphasis of the classical theorists.

Since much of this focus is on the relationship between the formal and informal groups extant within a given organization, the roots of this movement are often traced to Chester Barnard, one of the first to present definitions of the two organizational forms.[32] Formal organization was "cooperation among men that is conscious, deliberate and purposeful."[33] Conversely, the informal organization was the amalgamation of all the "personal contacts and interactions and the associated groupings of people" which were not governed by the formal organization.[34]

Herbert Simon expanded upon Barnard's organizational insight in his pioneering contribution to organizational theory, *Administrative Behavior.*[35] Simon's concern was primarily with the process of decision making in complex organizations; he saw this as the major area in which individuals surrendered autonomy to the organization. Therefore, decisions were not best thought of as a function of the scalar chain advocated by the scientific management school; instead, there were

"composite" decisions. Furthermore, Simon, in collaboration with James March, provided the first serious attempt by researchers to specify propositions of management theory in a testable form—a hallmark of the behavioral scientist.[36]

Two other major contributors to this movement bear mentioning as pioneers: Douglas McGregor[37] and Rensis Likert.[38] McGregor challenged the classical assumption that authority is the central, indispensable means of managerial control. He suggested, rather, that authority is just one of many means. Furthermore, traditional assumptions about control carried with them assumptions about human nature. Traditional theory, which he labeled Theory X, assumed that people disliked work and had to be directed and coerced to perform. He proposed a different set of assumptions based partially on Maslow's hierarchy of needs.[39] These assumptions, which he labeled Theory Y, held that people 1) desired work as a natural activity; 2) will exercise self-direction and self-control; 3) will seek responsibility; and 4) will be creative. McGregor's theory was individually oriented; Likert advocated a prescriptive theory for organizations. His System 4 has three key elements: "1) the use by the manager of the principle of supportive relationships, 2) his use of group decision making and group methods of supervision, and 3) his high performance goals for the organization."[40] The principle of supportive relationships essentially advocates that all organizational processes will be seen by each individual as being supportive of his or her sense of personal worth.

Systems. As a theory of management, the systems approach seeks to wed behavioral science views with the strictly mechanistic views of scientific management so that the organization can be considered an integrated whole, the goal of which is to achieve overall system effectiveness while harmonizing the conflicting objectives of its components. Much of the literature emanating from the systems theorists has its roots in the work of Ludwig von Bertalanffy[41] and the cybernetics movement of the 1940s, although systems theory did not surface in the management literature until the 1960s. Bertalanffy, a biologist, suggested a commonality among sciences: they were primarily oriented toward the study of a whole (i.e. organism). Organisms strive for a "steady state," or equilibrium; all systems are open in that they are both affected by and have effects upon their environments. The cybernetics model added the concept that systems could be designed to control themselves through a "feedback" loop which would provide the system with the information necessary to adjust to adverse stimuli in the environment.

Contemporary. One interesting attribute of management theory is that very little of it has been totally abandoned. Management theory, instead, has continued to build incrementally upon its foundation. Modern managers must take what they can find of benefit from the scientific managers, the human relations experts, the behavioral scientists and the systems theorists to develop a useful response to the problems of today's organizations. Contemporary management theory is indeed dynamic, integrative and eclectic.

Organizational Structure

Organizations are collections of individuals working toward a common goal. Organizational structure provides a means for attaining the objectives and goals of the organization. The structure must suit the needs of the particular organization,

achieve consistency among the various aspects of the organization and be adaptable over time.[42]

Structure assists in the attainment of objectives in three main respects. First, it contributes to the successful implementation of plans by formally allocating people and resources to the tasks which have to be done, and it provides the mechanisms for their coordination. This is the basic organizational structure: it includes such artifacts as organizational charts, job descriptions and corporate charters. Structure, secondly, makes it possible for the organization to indicate to its members clearly and concisely what is expected of them by means of various operating mechanisms. These include operating manuals, standing orders, reward systems, planning schedules and so on. Thirdly, structure encompasses provisions for assisting decision making and its associated information-processing requirements through the establishment of committees, advisory boards and the like.

There are five major components of an organization's structure:

1) Allocation of tasks and responsibilities. Through the process of designating tasks to individuals the formal organization defines important superior-subordinate relationships. Methods of accomplishing work and establishment of job specialization are part of this component.

2) Formal communication systems. The definition of who reports to whom has two effects on structure. First, it establishes the levels within the hierarchy and, second, it serves to define spans of control. Additionally, these insure the effective communication of information, integration of effort and participation on the decision-making processes.

3) Departmentalization. Through this process, individuals are grouped together into sections or departments based on similar characteristics, such as the type of work performed or location. These departments are further grouped into divisions or larger units culminating in the total organization.

4) Delegation. Authority within the organization is delegated by means of the structure. It provides procedures whereby the use of discretion is monitored and evaluated.

5) Evaluation. Structure provides the means through which provisions can be established for performance appraisal and reward systems which are used to motivate employees.[43]

Deficiencies in any of these components can cause serious problems in the organization. Motivation and morale may suffer if decisions are viewed as inconsistent, due to the absence of standardized rules; if employees perceive that they have little responsibility or opportunity for achievement, due to poorly designed decision-making systems; or if there is a lack of clarity as to what is expected of people and how performance is to be evaluated. Decision making may be delayed or lacking in quality because of a lack of appropriate information or because no adequate procedures for evaluating the results of similar decisions in the past exist. Conflict and lack of coordination of work tasks may arise, due to conflicting goals which have not been assimilated into a single set of objectives. The organization may not respond innovatively to changing circumstances because it has no specialized jobs dealing with forecasting and assessing the environment. The organization may fail to ensure that innovation is a major activity of the organization, or there may be inadequate coordination between the part of the organization identifying the changing market conditions and the researchers working on technological solutions. Lastly, costs may rise sharply, especially on the administrative side because there is an increasing ratio of "chiefs" to "indians," or there is an excess of procedures and paperwork which distracts peoples' attention from productive work.

In establishing the structure of an organization or subunit, a number of questions must be answered. Should jobs be broken down into narrow areas of work to

promote efficiency, or should the degree of specialization be minimized to simplify communication and to offer employees greater scope and responsibility in their work? Should the overall organization be tall or flat in terms of its levels of management and spans of control? What approaches should management take to maintain adequate control over the work to be done? Should decision making be centralized or decentralized? The answers of a particular organization to these questions establish the structural nature of the organization.

As seen in the review of management theory, questions associated with the structural properties of organizations were those first addressed by organizational theorists. It is generally accepted that the predominant structural form used in schools is that of the Weberian bureaucracy. The characteristics of the bureaucracy have been discussed earlier. Much has been written about the characteristics and effects of schools as bureaucratic organizations; the purpose here is to discuss briefly the major dysfunctions of the bureaucratic model and to introduce some contemporary explanations of the structure of schools.[43]

Although each of the five major characteristics of the bureaucratic model was proposed to remedy problems extant in organizations, it is apparent that there are detrimental aspects of the characteristics.[44] The division of labor was proposed as a method of increasing expertise of persons in an organization, yet it results in boredom when employees tire of doing repetitive, unchallenging tasks. The impersonal orientation which was advocated to establish rational, impartial treatment of clients by employees also can contribute significantly to a lack of morale within an organization when employees feel isolated from one another. Communication blocks often arise from the formal hierarchial structure of bureaucracies, although the structure was advocated as a method of ensuring compliance and coordination to improve efficiency. However, efficiency is reduced, not increased when communication blocks contribute to poor decision making. The career orientation of the bureaucrat was encouraged as an incentive to override the patronage system of the past, yet such orientation often results in a conflict between the employee's need to achieve and a need to maintain seniority. Finally, one of the hallmarks of the bureaucratic model (standardized rules and regulations), while designed to ensure continuity and conformity in decision making, often results in rigid interpretations and goal displacement—from that of the organization's general goals to the simple matter of "following the rules."

As these weaknesses in the model became increasingly apparent, a number of contemporary theorists attempted to provide different interpretations of the structural properties of organizations, especially schools. These attempts have focused primarily on the question of whether organizational structures are or can be rational. The concept of rationality underlies much of traditional management theory. If organizational structures cannot be joined to goals and objectives, what can be used to explain the relationships?

Charles Bidwell first alluded to the "structural looseness" of schools in describing the teacher in the workplace.[45] He maintained that teacher autonomy was reflected in the structure of the organization, its looseness arising from the teacher's independence in the classroom. This independence abrogates the concepts of close supervision associated with the bureaucratic model.

James March and Johan Olsen suggest that there are substantial differences between school organizations and other types of bureaucracies; that is, schools are "organized anarchies."[46] March and Olsen have been joined by Karl Weick,[47] John

Meyer and Brian Rowan[48] and others[49] who see schools as organizations "with ambiguous goals, unclear technologies, fluid participation, uncoordinated activities, loosely connected structural elements and a structure that has little effect on outcomes."[50] These assumptions underpin most of the "loose coupling" literature.

Weick defines "loose coupling" as a situation where "the coupled events are responsive, but that each event also preserves its own identity and some evidence of its physical or logical separateness."[51] In school settings, the business manager's office may be loosely coupled to the assistant superintendent for curriculum's office. Within the school system, there is agreement that the offices are somehow interrelated but simultaneously separate. Decisions made within one may affect the other but with little overlap in function.

There are a number of potential functions that Weick associates with loose coupling.[52] Loose coupling allows some aspects of the organization to persist, even during times when they are opposed by the organization's constituency. Because of the relative independence of subunits, loose coupling allows the organization to be more aware of and responsive to its environment. For instance, it can facilitate a localized adaptation of an innovation such as happens when one group of employees goes on "flex" time as a test of the advantages, without the need for the entire organization to adjust. Loose coupling can also facilitate novel solutions to specialized problems, and provide self-determination for employees.

Meyer and Rowan also address the issue of loose coupling in educational organizations.[53] Their thesis is that both loose and tight coupling occur: loose coupling with regard to evaluation procedures, curriculum and technological innovations and the authority which administrators are able to exercise over instruction. They see evidence of tight coupling, too, especially in areas which they term "ritual classifications."[54] Ritual classifications are linked to the "credentialling and hiring of teachers, the assignment of students to classes and teachers and scheduling."[55] In these areas the schools exercise tight control. Furthermore, Meyer and Rowan see areas of tight coupling as an essential part of the societal understanding of the role of the school. They contend that schools maintain tight control over these segments of their operation because of environmental restraints that are not present with regard to the process of instruction.

Perhaps more challenging than Meyer and Rowan's concept of coupling are their conclusions regarding the nature of formal organizational structure. They maintain that "the formal structure of an organization incorporates (and in some respects *is*) an environmental ideology or theory of the organization's activity."[56] Therefore, according to Meyer and Rowan, the formal structure changes in response to environmental changes, not because of a planned, rational reason. For example, given this interpretation, the advent of the office of school business manager might best be explained as stemming from a societal (environmental) demand rather than as a rational solution made within the organization to improve efficiency.

Organizational Climate

Although the human relations and behavioral science approaches to management had focused on assessing organizational impacts upon the individual, there also arose an equally focused concern with the total organization. Researchers,

beginning with the Hawthorne studies, had observed that different organizational structures and procedures had differing effects on the workings of the organization. Some work settings were characterized by managers who were friendly and easy-going, whereas others were characterized by overbearing, authority-driven individuals.

Attention turned to the possible effects of the interactions between people in the organization and the organizational environment. Halpin and Croft probably best described organizational climate when they used the analogy that "personality is to the individual what 'climate' is to the organization."[53] This concept is linked strongly to other aspects of management theory presented here: structure, leadership and change.

Although there has been considerable confusion about how climate attributes and variables should be defined,[54] there is little doubt that climate affects the organization's ability to function effectively. It is only to the extent that the person-environment interaction is a constructive one that organizations can successfully function. These interaction processes encompass the major functions of the organization including communication, decision making, leadership, coordination, control and evaluation.

A number of methods have been devised to ascertain the climate of an organization. Many of these are intuitive instruments with little value for concentrated assessment. There are three well-tested instruments, however, each reflective of a particular theoretical base, which are appropriate for use in school settings. These are the Organizational Climate Development Questionnaire (OCDQ) developed by Andrew Halpin and Don Croft, The Profile of a School (POS) developed by Rensis Likert and Organizational Climate Index (OCI) used by George Stern.[55]

Open vs. Closed Climates. Halpin and Croft were the first researchers to delve into the organizational climate of schools. Their instrument, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), utilized the perceptions of individuals within the organization to describe the climate. They maintained that since climate was the result of individual and organizational interaction that the most appropriate judge of the relationship was the members of the organization.

The OCDQ was developed in questionnaire form having 64 items with each item representing one of the eight climate factors. The climate factors were grouped into two categories, those items which described teachers' perceptions of the teachers in the school and those which described the collective views of teachers with regards to the principal.

1) Teachers' Perceptions of Teachers:

Disengagement: the psychological and physical distancing from one another and the school as a whole as expressed in the degree to which teachers are involved in the goals of the school.

Esprit: the apparent morale, spirit and liveliness of the group.

Hindrance: the burdensomeness of tasks and responsibilities unrelated to teaching.

Intimacy: the degree to which teachers share their private lives with one another.

2) Teachers' Perceptions of Principals:

Aloofness: the psychological and physical distance that the principal maintains

from the teachers including degree of formality.

Consideration: the concern shown for the staff as individuals, reflected in kindness and humanitarianism.

Production emphasis: the extent to which the principal is an active supervisor who is directive and insensitive to teachers reactions.

Thrust: the presence of an active, energetic role model.

Each of these subscales is conceptually independent, yet there are parallels in concept between aloofness and disengagement, production emphasis and hindrance, thrust and *esprit*, and consideration and intimacy.

From these scales Halpin and Croft developed six major organizational climates on a continuum ranging from "open" to "closed." The middle climates (autonomous, controlled, familiar and paternal) do not have the robustness of the anchors.[50] An open climate was characterized by high scores on esprit, thrust and consideration and low scores on hindrance, disengagement, production emphasis and aloofness. The high levels of thrust and esprit coupled with the low level of disengagement suggest a school setting where the principal is an active, vigorous role model for teachers who accept his or her leadership and who work cooperatively toward organizational goals. Conversely, in a closed climate thrust and esprit are low and disengagement is high. Schools with this climate have staffs who do little more than show up for work. They are neither involved nor concerned with the organizational goals and are headed by a principal who cannot provide effective leadership.

Studies using this instrument have provided inconclusive and conflicting data with regard to the relationship between school climate and student achievement.[51] However, there has been little research completed with regarding the relationship between teachers and principals using this model.

Exploitative-Authoritarian vs. Participative. Likert presents one of the most comprehensive of all theoretical management frameworks within his concept of four basic systems of organizational management. He ascertains organizational climate through this framework by assessing perceptions of six characteristics of organizations: leadership styles, motivational strategies, communication processes, decision-making strategies, goal-setting activities and control mechanisms.

System 1 (Exploitative-Authoritative) is characterized by little mutual confidence and trust between superiors and employees. There is seldom any indication of the supportive relationships which are so important to successful management, given the Likert theory. Employees are primarily motivated by means of threats and sanctions. Hostility and dissatisfaction at all levels of the organization are rampant. Control and communication originate at the top of the organization and filter downward. There is seldom interaction between individuals at differing levels with regard to operational activities. System 1 reflects assumptions comparable to McGregor's Theory X.

The Benevolent-Authoritative philosophy (System 2) is similar to System 1. In this system, there is an emphasis on one-on-one relationships between the leader and subordinates primarily to keep the subordinate isolated.

System 3 (Consultative) is characterized by increased feelings of responsibility on the part of organizational members, which translates into fairly high levels of job satisfaction. The communication channels are relatively open with information flowing in all directions, although there are some remnants of distortion. Goal-setting is usually established in deliberation with subordinates, although the leader

retains the authority to decide. Control and decision-making is still primarily centered at the top of the organization; yet there is usually some delegation to lower levels. Use is occasionally made of cooperative work units.

The Participative system, System 4, is at the opposite end of the continuum from System 1. This is the climate that is advocated by Likert as most conducive to organizational effectiveness. It is somewhat similar to Halpin and Croft's open system in that communication patterns are free flowing, with information passed accurately in all directions.[62] Control in this system is spread to members throughout the organization; the formal and informal organizations are virtually identical. Goals are established through group participation, except in emergency situations. There is much cooperative teamwork with decision making involving all levels of the organization on virtually all issues. Trust between organizational members is prevalent and members have high levels of job satisfaction.

Likert has developed a fifty-one item Profile of Organizational Characteristics for assessing the presence of the eight variables previously mentioned. In school settings, the predominant instrument has been the Profile of a School (POS). Likert and his associates have reported that organizations, primarily engaged in business, which approach the System 4 climate have higher levels of performance as measured by productivity and employee satisfaction.[63] The POS instrument has not yet been used extensively in school settings and little research has been reported.

Need-Press. The last of the conceptualizations of organizational climate is the need-press model advocated by George Stern. Stern conceived of organizational climate as the social context in which each individual's personality is either expressed or repressed in varying degrees. He built his model on the conceptual base provided by Karl Lewin's conceptualization of behavior(B) as a function(f) of personality(P) and environment(E): $(B = f(P \times E))$[64] and George Murray's concept of need-press in the development of human personality.[65] "Need" in this sense is the internal aspects of personality; "press" is the external influences of the environment.

Stern developed the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) for use in school settings. It is composed of 300 items keyed to thirty need variables. Six first-order factors have been developed: intellectual climate, achievement standards, practicalness, supportiveness, orderliness and impulse control. These factors can be reduced to two second-order factors: development press and control press. Development press is found in an organizational climate which fosters self-realization and personal development. Climates which impede self-realization and personal development by inhibiting or restricting expressiveness and spontaneity are those which exhibit control press.

Using this model, four types of organizational climates can be derived if one conceptualizes the control press and development press scores as providing two axes. Their intersection provides four possible climates: high control/high development; low control/high development; low control/low development; high control/low development.

Leadership Styles

The study of leadership has intrigued and frustrated researchers for most of the last century. Tied to a desire for knowledge about what makes a good leader have

been several other concerns, including how the attributes of leadership might be assessed and what action might be taken once the appropriate assessments have been made. This section will outline the trends in leadership research. Then, prevailing methods of assessing leadership style in the school setting will be discussed. Finally, the implications of assessment for modifying leadership patterns will be addressed.

There have been three major phases in the study of leader behavior. First was the concept that successful leadership was the function of particular traits of an individual. It was thought that if these traits could be properly isolated, one could identify appropriate leaders: i.e., those persons who manifested these special traits. Research in this vein began around the turn of the century and dominated the field for fifty years. By the late 1940s, it had become apparent that there would be no concensus on which traits were characteristic of "good" leaders. The research comprised numerous investigations, but they had contradictory conclusions. Stogdill concluded:

> [F]indings suggest that leadership is not a matter of passive status, or of the most possession of some combination of traits. It appears rather to be a working relationship among members of a group, in which the leader acquires status through active participation and demonstration of his capacity for carrying out cooperative tasks through to completion.[66]

The search continued, however, but with a shift in emphasis from searching out the traits common to successful leaders to ascertaining if particular behaviors could be associated with effective leadership. The major thrust of this research was developed concurrently by researchers at several universities. The Ohio State University studies, as they have been often called, began in the late 1940s and centered on the development and revision of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The eventual form of the LBDQ focused on two particular classes of behavior: initiating structure and consideration. These two dimensions of leadership are similar in construct to those proposed by other authors. In sociology, Etzioni[67] and Parsons[68] called them instrumental and expressive activities. Cartwright and Zander referred to goal achievement and group maintenance.[69] Katz, MacCoby and Morse used the terms "production and employee orientation."[70] These two basic constructs, one a concern for task (i.e., initiating structure)—the other emphasizing personal relationships (i.e., consideration)—provide the framework for much of the research on leadership.

Although these two dimensions have been consistently identified, it has not been conclusively established that a relationship exists between them and measures of leader effectiveness.[71] Using these studies as a base, several researchers theorized that the lack of consistent results was due to differences in the types of situations in which leaders were called upon to act. These contingency or situational theories were first espoused by Fiedler; he suggested that leadership style is a function of the differing motivations of the leader. Effectiveness is a function of the leader's style in concert with what he called the "situation's favorableness."[72] Contingency or situational theory maintains that the most appropriate leadership style is one which best matches a particular situation. Leader behavior advocates had maintained that particular behaviors were uniformly effective, regardless of situational circumstances.

Leadership theory currently is characterized by attempts to relate leadership traits, situational characteristics and leader effectiveness.

Assessment of Leadership Style. The instruments currently available to assess leadership style reflect the major thrusts of leadership theory and research. Since

the primary concern here is to provide information to school business administrators with regard to contemporary theory and potential professional development, only some of the most available instruments will be discussed. These are the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ);[71] the Managerial Grid[74] and its subsequent version, the Academic Administrator Grid;[75] and the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description.[76]

The Ohio State leadership studies resulted in the isolation of two primary dimensions of leader behavior: initiating structure and consideration.[77] Initiating structure refers to the leader's establishment of a well-defined relationship between himself and other members of the work group. It is characterized by formal patterns of organization and communication and specific methods of procedure. Consideration, conversely, refers to behavior characterized by "mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leaders and the members of his staff."[78]

Four major styles in this model are formed by the intersection of the concern for consideration and concern for initiating structure axes:

- high consideration/high initiating structure
- low consideration/high initiating structure
- low consideration/low initiating structure
- high consideration/low initiating structure

The high-high posture has most often been associated with performance in school settings.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) is the instrument used to assess levels of initiating structure and consideration. The instrument contains forty items. Each item is a behavioral statement to which the rater responds in terms of the frequency with which the behavior is observed in the person being rated. Frequency is rated on a Likert-type scale with 1 being "always" and 5 being "never." There are fifteen items used to calculate scores on each of the two subscales (initiating structure and consideration) with the remaining ten items serving as distractors. The LBDQ was designed to be completed by the leader's employees, supervisors or peers. An alternate form, the Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) was developed for self assessments.

The Managerial Grid is also concerned with two dimensions of leader behavior arising from the Ohio State studies: concern for production and concern for people. Blake and Mouton use a nine-point axis for each of these dimensions resulting in a 9x9 Grid (1 represents the minimum level of concern; 9, the maximum). Although the Grid allows for eighty-one variations in leadership style, Blake and Mouton concentrate on those styles associated with the extremes of the axes and the midpoint. These are the 1,1 (low concern for production, low concern for people); 1,9 (low production, high people); 9,1 (high production, low people); 9,9 (high production, high people), and 5,5 (average production, average people). These five styles have been popularized as impoverished, relation-oriented, task-oriented, integrated, and balanced, respectively.[79] The original grid has been successfully modified by the authors to fit a number of professions. In 1981, Blake, Mouton and Williams introduced a version designed for the academic administrator.

The Academic Administrator Grid, like its predecessors, has two axes, albeit slightly different: concern for people and concern for institutional performance. For this grid, the targeted styles are referred to as "caretaker" (1,1); "comfortable

and pleasant" (1,9); "constituency-centered" (5,5); "authority-obedience" (9,1); and "team" (9,9).[80]

Caretaker administration is characterized by "little concern for performance" coupled with low levels of involvement in the use of power and authority. According to Blake, et. al., "such an administrator desires little, strives for little, gives little, gets little and cares little one way or another."[81] In authority-obedience administration, a high concern for organizational performance is combined with little concern for the people with whom one is working. Power and authority are employed to accomplish institutional goals with little thought given to the interpersonal needs of the employee. Diametrically opposite to the authority-obedience administrator is the comfortable and pleasant administrator who focuses on the employees' welfare. This style is characteristic of an administrator who believes "when people are happy, results will take care of themselves and there will be little need for supervision."[82] Constituency-centered administration balances concern for people with a concern for institutional performance. This "balancing act" attempts to accomplish the goals specified by superordinates while avoiding the alienation of subordinates. Constituency-centered administrators seldom show a strong commitment to organizational goals; doing so carries with it the possibility that employees will interpret such actions as unwarranted.

"Team administration" is the final of the five major styles and is the one which Blake, Mouton and Williams support as the best. This style is characterized by "an integration of concerns: a high concern for institutional performance combined with a high concern for people."[83] This 9,9 administrator mobilizes the individual efforts of employees to work in a creative, productive and rewarding manner toward institutional goals.

Blake, Mouton and Williams use an instrument comprised of five paragraphs; it describes differing managerial philosophies and six groupings of statements concerning various facets of administration (making decisions, holding convictions, managing conflict, controlling temper, expressing humor and exerting effort). Administrators are directed to read through the first set of paragraphs and rank the descriptions from 5 (most typical of their behavior) to 1 (least typical). The second task is to examine five sentences in each of the five facets of administration and choose the one most typical of actual, not ideal, behavior. Each of the paragraphs represents a particular stylistic view, as does each of the sentences which make up the second phase.

At the close of the initial assessment, Blake, et. al., report that almost 70 percent of the administrators rate themselves as a 9,9 leader.[84] However, following the week-long training session which accompanies this program, there is usually a shift in these self-assessments with less than a quarter of the administrators reporting a "team" style.

In addition to the self-assessment, instruments are available which allow subordinates and superiors to evaluate one's leadership style within the framework of this system. An evaluation by the pertinent constituents can provide the school business manager with a menu of personal leadership weaknesses as perceived by others, thus providing an opportunity for concerted attempts to alter behavior.

Unlike Blake, Mouton and Williams, Hersey and Blanchard are proponents of situational leadership.[85] They maintain that the most appropriate leadership style depends upon a variety of factors; most importantly, it depends on the level of the maturity of the employee. Maturity is seen as a combination of the "ability and

willingness of the individuals or groups to take responsibility for directing their own behavior in a particular area."[8] This model comprises the two axes based upon the Ohio State studies: task behavior and relationship behavior. The axes intersect resulting in four quadrants: high task/low relationship, high task/high relationship, high relationship/low task and low relationship/low task. These styles are called "telling," "selling," "participating" and "delegating," respectively.

The telling style is viewed as most appropriate for employees who have low levels of maturity. It is characterized by the leader who emphasizes directive behavior, defining the employee's role for him or her and telling the employee precisely what to do and how to do it.

The selling style is suggested as most appropriate for employees with low to moderate levels of maturity. It involves a simultaneous and strong emphasis on both task and relationship behaviors. The leader employing this style, although still in control, entices the employee into taking part in organizational goal attainment through processes of communication and explanation.

Individuals exhibiting moderate to high levels of maturity are most productive under participating leadership, according to this model. In such situations, the employee has the ability to do the work necessary for organizational success, but self-confidence is lacking. The participating style utilizes the ability of the leader to communicate in order to support the employee's accomplishment of organizational goals. The leader and the follower share decision making when this style is predominant.

In the last style, delegating, employees have both the ability and the motivation to accomplish the tasks at hand and, therefore, need little in the way of direction or support from the leader. The leader exhibiting this style, with its restricted use of both task and relationship behaviors, can be characterized as one who lets the employees have full rein to make decisions appropriate to their roles within the organization.

The assessment of style is completed through use of the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD). The LEAD instrument is composed of twelve situation narratives, each of which has four alternative responses. It has two forms: the LEAD-Self, for self-assessment; and the LEAD-Other for assessments by either subordinates or superiors. In the LEAD-Self, the individual chooses the response which most closely describes how he or she responded to an actual situation similar to the one described; or, if the situation is new to the individual, how he or she thinks he or she would behave in such a circumstance. The organization of the LEAD-Other is identical except that either subordinates or superiors rate their experience or perception of the behavior of the leader.

These instruments (LBDQ, Grid, LEAD) address the issue of the appropriate rater in different ways. The LBDQ, basically, provides for significant groups within the workplace to rate leader behavior, although there is provision by means of the LOQ for the leader to engage in self-rating. Both the Grid and the LEAD systems provide for both self-ratings and ratings by others.

Generally, self-rating should be viewed with caution. With regard to the LBDQ instruments, Halpin concluded that the ratings of subordinates were more reliable than either those of superiors or self-ratings.[87] Several studies have found both self-ratings and superiors' ratings only weakly correlated either to others' perceptions or other position-related variables.[88] Hersey and Blanchard suggest that the self-rating provides a self-perception of leadership style which "may or may not reflect actual leadership."[89] Blake and Mouton also warn that major differences between the ratings of styles by the leader compared to ratings by those individuals with whom he or she works, can exist.[90]

Leadership Style and Effectiveness. The relationship between leadership style and effectiveness is not as clear-cut as one might expect; there are a number of reasons for this. Leadership style has been defined differently and measured in different ways by the various researchers and trainers who have addressed the issue. To further complicate matters, effectiveness is difficult to define. Various approaches have been taken in quantifying the term, including ratings of job satisfaction, number of grievance procedures, group productivity, reputational ratings and perceptions of performance of specific duties.

Silver, in summarizing research on leader behavior and effectiveness, stated that the research has consistently held that leaders' levels of consideration, as perceived by subordinates, relate to subordinates' job satisfaction.[91] Leader consideration has also been inversely related to employee grievances and staff turnover. Research, in general, has been less consistent with regard to the implications of leader initiating structure. Structure has been found to be directly related, inversely related and unrelated to satisfaction.

Blake and Mouton have based their contention that the team or 9,9 style is most effective on a number of studies which have examined various aspects of the program.[92] In those studies, which took place in industrial settings, levels of performance were significantly higher and the quality of decisions significantly better in settings where the 9,9 style was dominant. The Managerial Grid, however, has not been extensively tested in educational organizations.

Hersey and Blanchard rely heavily on the work of Fiedler to support their contention that there must be different styles for different situations. They also suggest that Likert's work reported in *The Human Organization* also supports their model. Although a few studies[93] have been conducted on the validity of the Situational Leadership Theory, there have been virtually no studies on its overall effectiveness.

Probably the most common question raised by persons who have completed the first phase of leadership development, assessment, is: What can be done about it? That is, can predominant leadership styles be changed, and to what degree? Some support exists for the idea that style can be modified through training.[94] However, the extent to which the change is effective and/or longlasting is quite variable. Blake and Mouton have built their training programs on the concept that individuals can learn to be 9,9 managers. They see the processes involved in that style as something "that any individual can learn."[95] However, they cite three conditions necessary for this change: the theory behind the grid approach must be studied and learned; administrators must come to terms with the discrepancy between how they see themselves acting and how others see them; finally, there must be social support for making a change. This social support must come from fellow administrators who are themselves attempting to move to 9,9 management. Hersey and

Blanchard also deal with the issue of successfully changing leadership style.[96] They, too, see a change as feasible, but they caution that the process is laborious, with many opportunities for the individual to lapse into older, more comfortable styles. Like Blake and Mouton, they see the most effective method of successfully altering style including an overall organizational program—not isolated attempts by individuals. Fiedler cogently points out that "a person's leadership style reflects the individual's basic motivation and need structure" and, therefore, takes much time to effect.[97]

Organizational Development

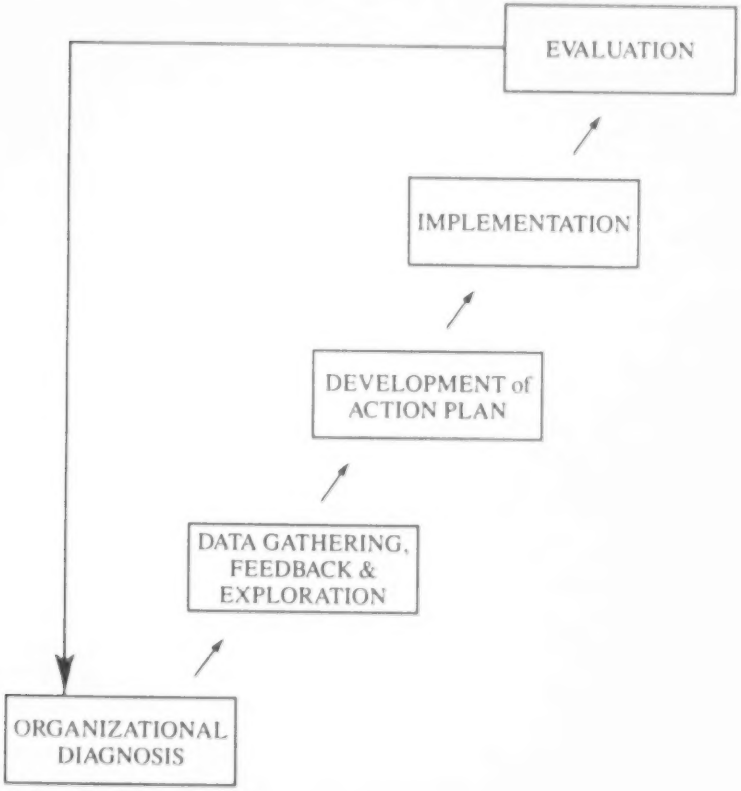
Organizational development is a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organizational culture, with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst, and through the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science, including action research. According to French and Bell, organizational development is ongoing, data-based, experience-based and goal-oriented.[98] It constitutes a normative-reeducative strategy of change, using a systems approach. School business administrators are often involved in organizational development activities even when they are unaware of them. For instance, if the school district has made a decision to computerize its operations, a planned change has been decided. The questions which must be asked in preparation for any change are essentially the same whether they are in the business office or in the classroom; the appropriate processes are the same, as is the method of assessing organizational readiness to begin a change. This section will introduce the concepts of organizational development: characteristics, methodologies and methods of assessing an organization's readiness for change.[99]

Characteristics. The principal model for organizational development is that of action research.[100] It is essentially an ongoing five-stage system as illustrated in Figure 3:3. Every organizational development effort should begin with a systematic diagnosis of the organization. This diagnosis can take several forms and take place at a number of organizational levels. The focus of the diagnosis can be the total system, a subsystem, or individuals or the roles which individuals play within the organization. In school settings, then, the focus might be on the entire district, or only one building, department or set of relationships. The purpose of the diagnosis is to identify areas of strengths and weaknesses within the organization. Although most organizational development plans are directed toward improving organizational weaknesses, it is also beneficial for the organization to be cognizant of its strengths.

The next stage includes data gathering, feedback and exploration. In classical organizational development programs, this task was usually carried out by a third party; however, the current trend is for these efforts to be conducted "in-house" as long as the organization has the technical expertise needed to collect the appropriate data. The organization collects data about the problems that were identified in the diagnosis stage. These data can be derived from archival records, questionnaires, interviews or other similar means. Once these data are collected they are analyzed by the organization within the context of the problem and sometimes in concert with an outside consultant.

From the analysis of data there usually will emerge several alternatives for addressing the problem. The strengths and weaknesses of each of the alternatives should be evaluated in light of overall organizational goals and potential costs and benefits. Every effort should be made to encourage divergent thinking with regards to potential solutions.[10] When an alternative has been selected, detailed plans should be drawn detailing objectives, resource needs (both monetary and material) and timelines.

Figure 3:3: Stages of the Organizational Development Process.



The next stage implements the action plans devised to address the problem. Unforeseen conflicts may now arise among organizational members. Persons involved in directing the change effort should be aware of their need to address the questions and concerns of those who are opposed to the change program. An integral part of the implementation process should be evaluation, which provides the link in the cycle between program implementation and diagnosis. The evaluation of the organizational development effort raises additional questions for which data must be gathered before decisions can be made, thus effectively reviving the process from which the change effort emerged.

This cycle of problem identification, data collection and analysis, action planning, implementation and evaluation characterizes organizational development activities.

Determining Readiness for Organizational Development. Schmuck and Runkel specify six conditions that are necessary before an organization can engage in a change process.[102] They are an organizational press for organizational development, support for organizational development, staff stability, group norms which support collaborative work, skill in collaborative group work and a spirit of risktaking.

Before an organization can undertake an organizational development program, a consensus that something needs correcting must exist. As obvious as this may sound, numerous cases of attempted projects fail simply because they were the pipedream of one or two people. A "critical mass" of people should be dissatisfied with the direction in which the organization is proceeding, and cadre of them should also be confident that organizational development processes are both feasible and desirable. Obviously, it is helpful if a large portion of the organization seeks a particular change. There are many ways to ascertain whether members of the organization are dissatisfied and whether that dissatisfaction is focused. In an informal way, one may simply assess the issues which are bantered about in the faculty lounge, PTA meetings or public hearings before the board. More formal assessments may take the form of questionnaires, interviews and school records. It will also be helpful if outside forces support or are neutral concerning the proposed change.

A second necessary condition is that of support for the organizational development effort. Support can take different forms: money, expertise and administrative endorsement. Before undertaking the effort, organizers should develop a list of needs. One method of ascertaining support for the project comprises asking individuals what they can contribute to the effort; other sources of support are cooperative districts, local college and university professors and the state department of education staff. Certainly, it is easiest to begin a project when officials both express support and back that support with organizational resources. Often the most important aspect is convincing someone that the proposed project has merit.

Staff stability is another necessary condition for a successful change effort. Staff turnover must be relatively small if the critical mass alluded to earlier is to be maintained. This critical mass can be kept intact by several means: keeping all of its active members, replacing members who leave with those having similar beliefs and initial over-staffing. If at all possible, the top-level administrators should remain the same throughout the change effort. If a strongly supportive individual leaves, the project often falters; and, although there is a need for staff stability, too little turnover can have deleterious effects also—the staff will become too comfortable with "old" habits to try new ideas.

Effective organizational development programs require the work group to function collaboratively; therefore, it is necessary that the organization have norms which support collaborative work. One must determine the extent to which people working in the organization share tasks, work together and exchange ideas. Since organizational development activities require considerable time and effort, it is important to ascertain if supporters are willing to work overtime. Although this

issue must be faced early, attempts should be made to determine the organizational norms for this type of activity: Are they supportive? Have people given freely of their time in the past?

It is not only necessary that the organization support group collaborative work, leaders of the organizational development effort must also have skill in coordinating the activities. Often it will be necessary to have individuals trained to better facilitate the open communication needed for such work.

The last condition for organizational readiness to undertake a development effort in best summarized as a spirit of risk-taking. Change efforts are sometimes unsuccessful. If the organization consistently punishes (through attitudes as much as sanctions) those persons who attempt to effect a change, the composite risk-taking nature of the organization is compromised. Although unnecessary risk is to be avoided, organizations can be responsive to changing environments only when they support risk-taking.

Determining whether an organization is "ready" to engage in organizational development is important. If the organization is not receptive, providing an atmosphere supportive of change effort, it will not succeed. Although it is not necessary for each of these six conditions to be met, weaknesses in two or more areas probably indicate that more groundwork needs to be completed to prepare the organization (in general) before attention is directed to specific problems.

Change Strategies. Although specific implementation strategies take a variety of forms, Chin suggests that they can be classified as one of three types: empirical-rational, power-coercive or normative-reeducative.[103] The classifications reflect the basic philosophical underpinnings of each category.

The empirical-rational model assumes that humans are a rational beings and will follow rational self-interests once these interests are revealed. Therefore, changes proposed by experts which emphasize increased productivity or efficiency utilize empirical-rational strategies of change. These strategies are used primarily in connection with 'thing' technologies, such as new procedures or equipment. The rapid adoption of computer technology is an example of this type of change. Organizations commit themselves to purchasing computer systems primarily because they are viewed as economical.

The second category of change strategies is the power-coercive model. Power-coercive strategies seek to mount political and economic power behind the change goals which have been determined as desirable by an outside group. The emphasis is on the use of sanctions to ensure adoption of the proposed change. This strategy is often used by governments to compel organizations to accept change. Extra funding for schools that adopt certain state-endorsed programs is a strategy used under this model. A more dramatic strategy is the withholding of funds from school districts if specific programs or guidelines are not enacted.

Organizational development programs utilize the third category: normative-reeducative strategies. These strategies reflect the philosophy that change activities are successful only when the people involved in the change are able to alter their normative orientations to old patterns and develop commitments to new ones. To accomplish this there must be changes in attitudes, values and relationships and not just in prescribed activities. Effective change under this model requires considerably more than a justification that the proposed change is desirable.

Summary

The aim of this chapter has been to introduce the prospective school business administrator to the rich literature of management thought, as a means of facilitating an understanding of the forces that dominate organizations, but especially educational institutions.

Modern management is not a discipline with a long and glorious history; rather, it has its origins in the demand for more effective organizations which arose little more than a century ago. Contemporary management theory addresses issues which are important to the operation of schools. Several of these issues have been addressed here: implications of organizational structure, organizational climate, leadership and organizational development.

School business administrators are in a pivotal position regarding the overall organization. They have access to, if not control over, the financial resources of the organization. Additionally, they interact with every level of the organization from the superintendent to the custodial staff. Because of this unique position, it is imperative that the person holding this position know the *total* organization, not just the specific task areas for which he or she is responsible daily.

Notes

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